

NOTIES ON THE CURRICULUM
IN COLONIAL AMERICA
BY
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EDUCATION

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Notes on the Curriculum in Colonial America

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The studies that are grouped under this title are but notes on the teaching of certain subjects in the colonial period. The first two are limited to the Province of New York; the others refer to the colonies in general. Their purpose is to present materials not used by other writers, and to call attention to errors that appear in current texts. Obviously, they are not complete: intensive research will yield much that is merely suggested here.

SPANISH

By the opening of the eighteenth century, New York City had achieved a position of prominence among our colonial seaports. It may be recalled that a considerable portion of her maritime commerce was with Spain and the Spanish ports of the West Indies and South America. An interesting incident of this trade relationship was that the merchants of the city and others in various parts of the colony early learned the value of Spanish coin. In fact, it was often preferred to that of England. The successful merchant learned, also, that it was necessary to acquire the language of those with whom he exchanged commodities, or, at least, to have access to individuals who were qualified to translate his correspondence and other business documents. To meet this demand, the language masters of the city gave instruction in Spanish and offered their services as translators.

Spanish was taught in New York City as early as 1735. In the *New York Gazette*, for July 14-21, of that year, the following unsigned advertisement appeared:

This is to give Notice that over against the Sign of the black Horse in Smith-street, near the old Dutch Church, is carefully taught the French and Spanish Languages, after the best Method that is now practiced in Great Britain which for the encouragement of those who intend to learn the same is taught for 20s per Quarter.

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The name of the master is unknown, and later publication of this notice does not reveal his identity. In 1747, Augustus Vaughan opened "A School in New-street, near the Corner of Beaver-street, where English, Latin, Spanish, and Italian are correctly and expeditiously taught."2 Two years later, John Clarke, who kept school "at the New-York Ferry upon Nassau Island," announced that he "translated and taught" French and Spanish.3

Perhaps the best-known teacher of Spanish in New York City, at the middle of the century, was Garrat Noel, whose school was located "at the House of Mrs. Easthams, the lower End of Broad-Street, near the Long-Bridge." Noel published, in 1751, "a true Translation of the Spanish Bulls, or a Form of the Pope's Absolution;"5 and also a textbook, which he described as "A Short Introduction to the Spanish Language, to which is added a Vocabulary of Familiar Words for the more speedy Improvement of the Learner; with a Preface showing the Usefulness of this Language particularly in these Parts."6

Two other language masters, of later date, are worthy of inclusion in this group: Francis Humbert de la Roche and Anthony Fiva. De la Roche, "having taught the French Language in this City for a few Years," announced, in 1772, that he would "also teach to read Latin and Spanish." In the following year, Fiva "gave notice" that he "continues to teach grammatically, at his house in Dutch Church Street, opposite Captain Berton's, the French, Spanish, and Italian Languages in their greatest purity Mr. Fiva has had an academical education, and resided many years in Paris and Madrid."8 An announcement of 1774 "informs his friends, the encouragers of literature, and the public in general, that he is removed opposite the sugar-house,

¹ New York Gazette, July 21-28, July 28, August 4, August 4-11, 1735.

¹ New York Gazette, July 21-28, July 28, August 4, August 4-11, 1735.

² New York Gazette, revived in the Weekly Post Boy, October 26, 1747.

³ New York Gazette, December 4, 11, 18, 1749; January 1, 1750.

⁴ New York Gazette, January 21, 28, 1751.

⁵ New York Gazette, January 14, 1751.

⁶ New York Gazette, September 2, 9, 16, 23, 1751.

⁷ New York Gazette and Weekly Mercury, March 2, 1772.

⁸ Rivington's New York Gazetteer, or Connecticut, New Jersey, Hudson's Gazet and Oneshee Weekly Advertiser, Tally 29, August 12, December 9, 16, 1773. River, and Quebec Weekly Advertiser, July 22, August 12, December 9, 16, 1773.

in new Dutch Church-street, where he continues as before. . . . He enables his pupils, in a short time, to carry on an epistolary correspondence, so useful to young persons in business."⁹

Occasionally, the masters were employed by merchants to take charge of their Spanish correspondence and other papers. John Clarke offered to give "sufficient Security to keep all Writings Secret." Garrat Noel announced that he "translates Accompts, and other Papers, in the Spanish and Portuguese Languages"; and Anthony Fiva, that he "translates from any of the said languages (French, Italian, and Spanish) into the English, or either of the two others, with accuracy, dispatch, and secrecy, for attorneys, merchants, etc." Such announcements supplement, in a measure, other evidences of the importance of the language to those engaged in the Spanish trade.

These schools served two classes of students during the period considered. To some, they offered an opportunity of studying the language for purely cultural purposes. The cultivated New Yorker of that day was interested not only in the stirring events that had characterized the history of Spain in the sixteenth century, but he read her literature as well. For others, the language masters provided a necessary part of the commercial training of the eighteenth century.

ITALIAN

It can hardly be said that New York City had an Italian population during the seventeenth century. By the middle of the eighteenth century, however, there was a small, but respectable and substantial group of Italian citizens within the city, and they were not without intellectual contacts among those of English birth and education. The cultivated New Yorker of that day was acquainted with the language and literary traditions of Italy. He read, in the original, the masterpieces of "that polite tongue."

Rivington's New York Gazetteer, etc., May 19, 26, 1774; also in issue dated December 22, 1774: "he still continues teaching the above languages . . . after the manner of academies, universities, and colleges of the learned world."

The records indicate that instruction in Italian was offered in New York by the middle of the century. In 1747, "A School" was "open'd in New-street, near the Corner of Beaver-street, where English, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian are correctly and expeditiously taught by Augustus Vaughan."

An announcement by Anthony Fiva, in 1773, may be of interest:

Anthony Fiva

Continues to teach grammatically, at his house in Dutch Church-street, opposite Captain Berton's, the French, Spanish, and Italian Languages, in their greatest purity, on moderate terms: He also attends ladies and gentlemen in their own houses at any convenient hour; likewise translates from any one of said languages into the English, or either of the two others, with accuracy, dispatch, and secrecy for attorneys, merchants, etc., and as Mr. Fiva has had an academical education, and resided many years in Paris and Madrid, he is therefore able to resolve any question that might puzzle his scholars and entirely ground them both in the true accent of these polite languages, and all the rules of the syntax.

Mr. Fiva returns his most humble thanks to the Ladies and Gentlemen of this City, for the many favours he daily receives from them. His evening lessons from 6 to 8, Saturday excepted.¹¹

A year later, Fiva "informs his friends, the encouragers of literature, and the public in general, that he is removed opposite the sugar-house in new Dutch Church-street. . . . He enables his pupils in a short time to carry on an epistolary correspondence."¹²

In "A NEW ACADEMY for teaching MUSIC; DANCING and the ITALIAN and FRENCH LANGUAGES," established in 1774, Nicholas Biferi was "master of music"; Pietro Sodi, "dancing master"; and Joseph Cozani taught "the French and Italian languages." Mrs. Cozani, at the same time, conducted

¹⁰ New York Gazette, October 20, 1747.

¹¹ Rivington's New York Gazetteer, etc., July 22, August 12, December 9, 16, 1773.

¹² Rivington's New York Gazetteer, etc., May 19, 26, 1774, also in the issue dated December 22, 1774: "at his house in Crown Street opposite the sugar-house."

¹³ Rivington's New York Gazetteer, etc., May 5, June 16, 1774.

a "FRENCH BOARDING SCHOOL," in Wall Street, "where are taught the English, French, and Italian languages grammatically; also to write and translate one language into another."¹⁴

Such schools aided in the process of bringing together the diverse racial elements of the city. They played a small, but significant, part in the fusion that was necessary to the evolution of the American citizen of the nineteenth century.

ASTRONOMY

The impression one gains from most comments on the curriculum of the colonial period is that astronomy was taught only in the colleges. We know that it had a place in the curricula of some of the academies, but our texts inform us that these institutions did not appear until after the establishment of the Philadelphia Academy in 1751, and that they did not become popular until the last quarter of the eighteenth century. As a matter of fact, astronomy was a popular subject of instruction in colonial America. School announcements at hand indicate that it was offered in some eighty-six different schools during the years 1709-69.

The earliest press announcement of the teaching of astronomy appears in the *Boston News Letter*, March 14-21, 1709:

Opposite to the Mitre Tavern in Fish-street near to Scarlets Wharff, Boston, are Taught Writing, Arithmetick in all its parts; And also Geometry, Trigonometry, Plain and Spherical, Surveying, Dialling, Gauging, Navigation, Astronomy; The Projection of the Sphaere, and the use of Mathematical Instruments: By Owen Harris.

Who teaches at as easie Rates, and as speedy as may be.

¹⁰ Astronomy appears in the curriculum announced for the opening of the Philadelphia Academy, January 7, 1751. (*Pennsylvania Gazette*, December 18, 1750)

¹⁶ Rivington's New York Gazetteer, etc., July 21, 1774; April 20, 27, 1775.

¹⁵ Meriwether, C. Our Colonial Curriculum. Washington, D. C., Central Publishing Company, 1907, 177-79. ''Far more than algebra was astronomy a land of magic and mystery to our colonial ancestors... Those boundless spaces above and around were the haunts of ignorance, superstition, credulity. Here the imagination had full play for its wildest absurdities and most intricate perplexities... From such mists and fogbanks with only small lights of real knowledge, there could not be very helpful teaching in the schools. But it was in the colleges from the beginning. Being yoked with religion so intimately it went wherever that branch was taught.'' It is evident that Meriwether gave his ''imagination full play.''

¹⁶ Astronomy appears in the curriculum announced for the opening of the

John Green, also of Boston, advertised astronomy in the same year.¹⁷

John Leach and Charles Shimmin of the same city likewise taught astronomy during the colonial period. 18

It was offered in Philadelphia, as early as 1733, by Andrew Lamb, well-known as a teacher of navigation. In the following year, the subject appears among the courses announced by Theophilus Grew, who later became first professor of mathematics at the College and Academy of Philadelphia. Thomas Godfrey, member of Benjamin Franklin's "Junto" and of the American Philosophical Society, was teaching astronomy in 1740. Charles Fortesque was teaching it in 1743.

New York had two teachers of astronomy in 1747—Joseph Blanchard and George Bingham.²³ During the next five years at least three others were teaching the subject.²⁴

In the colleges, astronomy was considered a pure science. This viewpoint was rarely taken in institutions of subcollegiate grade. Isaac Greenwood (Harvard, 1721), advertised in the Boston News Letter, June 29–July 6, 1727, "to such as are already instructed in the Mathematical Sciences, the Principles of Sir Isaac Newton, and the Modern discoveries, in Astronomy and Philosophy, will be explained and demonstrated in a concise and easy manner." In the same year Greenwood became the first Professor of Mathematics at Harvard. After his dismissal in 1738 he reopened his private school.²⁵ It is very probable

¹⁷ Boston News Letter, March 21-28, 1709.

¹⁸ Independent Advertiser (Boston), April 17, 24; May 1, 1749. John Leach. Essex Gazette (Salem, Mass.), July 14-21, 21-28; August 4, 1772. Charles Shimmin.

¹⁹ American Weekly Mercury, September 6-13 and many issues in 1733 and 1734.

²⁰ American Weekly Mercury, October 3-10, 1734 and several issues in that and the following year. Also, Pennsylvania Gazette, October 14, 1742. Several issues in 1742, 1743, and 1744.

²¹ Pennsylvania Gazette, October 30; November 6, 20, 27, 1740. ²² Pennsylvania Gazette, November 24; December 1, 6, 15, 20, 1743.

^{*} New York Evening Post, August 3, 1747.

²⁴ New York Gazette, etc., May 13, etc., 1751 and 1752 (John Nathan Hutchins); March 16, etc., 1752 (Thomas Allen); June 4, etc., 1753 (John Lewis).

²⁵ Boston Gazette, March 26; April 2, 2-9, 1739.

that Greenwood emphasized the cultural as well as the practical values of astronomy. The same may no doubt be said of Nathan Price, of Boston, who, after his dismissal from Harvard in 1742, where he had been tutor in mathematics, advertised to teach astronomy.²⁶ Joseph Kent (Harvard, 1731), also of Boston, included "Calculation of Eclipses" in the the curriculum of his school.²⁷

In most private schools of the eighteenth century, astronomy was one of the "practical branches" and was taught with reference to its use in navigation.

²⁶ Boston News Letter, March 3, 10, 1743.

²⁷ Boston News Letter, October 9-16, 1735.

NOTES ON THE CURRICULUM IN COLONIAL AMERICA

From December 1925 Journal of Educational Research

BOOKKEEPING

In A Contribution to the History of Commercial Education, Mr. E. M. Barber takes occasion to criticize the following statements by "a recent writer on the history of early business education in America":

The science of double-entry bookkeeping as known and used to-day was not known in 1840. An earnest young man then living in Philadelphia wishing to learn bookkeeping applied to many merchants, but none would teach him or accept him as a bookkeeper without experience. He went to New York and found no one there to employ him or teach him bookkeeping, as each merchant had his own way of keeping accounts.

Bookkeeping was not then, as it is now, a system. It had no well-defined rules and was not taught save under the eye of business men themselves.

About 1845, the first business school in New York was started by Benjamin Foster, a native of England, and the instruction given was in penmanship and bookkeeping.

Mr. Barber proceeds, in rather direct fashion, to expose the writer of these irritating paragraphs:

The last date quoted, it will be observed, is 1845. Now, these statements come into collision with the truth at so many points as to remind one of the famous Academician who defined a crab to be "a small red fish that walks backwards," a definition which proved to be true excepting in three particulars: it was not red; it was not a fish; and it did not walk backwards.

Prompted by curiosity, some weeks ago, I determined to ascertain, if possible, why the City of New York, foremost in commerce and finance, should have been ignorant of double-entry bookkeeping and deprived of commercial teachers and schools, prior to the year 1845.

¹ Barber, E. M. "A Contribution to the History of Commercial Education." (An address delivered at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, held at Brooklyn, New York, April, 1903) p. 1.

After some research, Mr. Barber finds, in the New York City "directory for 1818 the name of James Bennett, Accountant," who began his "Public Lectures on Bookkeeping," either in that year or in 1824.² But there was another Bennett in New York at this time, one James Gordon Bennett, who advertised, in 1824, "an English classical and Mathematical school for the instruction of young gentlemen, intended for mercantile pursuits." This school, "if ever actually formed, had a brief existence." In 1825, James Gordon Bennett "returned to newspaper work."

If New York's claim to priority were otherwise jeopardized, I should contend that this was the first commercial school founded in America. Curiously, that honor belongs, I believe, to "another man by the same name." James Gordon Bennett may have doubted his ability to withstand the James Bennett competition, and, probably, this had something to do with the abandonment of his proposed permanent commercial school."

C. A. Herrick, who had examined Mr. Barber's "careful study," says:

The probable facts are that the spirit of the technical business school of this country can be traced back to R. M. Bartlett, and that there has been a continuous development of this institution from his crude beginnings. It seems probable that Bartlett began his first school for the teaching of penmanship, bookkeeping, and commercial arithmetic at Philadelphia in 1834.

Both Barber and Herrick have overlooked certain important sources of information on this topic. The colonial newspapers record the existence of schools in which commercial training was given for a full century before the ventures of Bennett and Bartlett.

² *Ibid.*, p. 5.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 7. ⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

⁵ Herrick, C. A. Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education. New York, Macmillan Company, 1904. p. 179.

[&]quot;To whom belongs the honor of the first venture in commercial education is a matter of some dispute. It has frequently been attributed to R. M. Bartlett By others the honor is claimed for James Bennett." Cyclopedia of Education. Paul Monroe, editor. New York, Macmillan Company, 1911. Vol. II, p. 144.

Strange as it may seem, bookkeeping was taught in Boston, as early as 1709:

Reading, Writing, Arithmetick, Merchants Accompts, Geometry, Trigonometry, Plain and Sphaerical, Dyalling, Gauging, Astronomy, and Navigation are Taught And Bonds, Bills, Indentures, Charter-parties, &c. are drawn; and Youth Boarded in Cross-street, Boston. By John Green.

There it is: "merchants' accompts." In 1718, "Mr. Browne Tymms Living at Mr. Edward Oakes Shopkeeper in Newbury-Street at the South End of Boston" taught "Young Men Arithmetick and Merchants Accounts."

Although similar New York records are not available for these years, it may be assumed that bookkeeping was taught there as early as in Boston. Both cities were important commercial centers before the close of the seventeenth century, and there must have been some response to the demand for business training. George Brownell, of New York City, in 1731, offered "merchants' accounts;" and in 1734, Alexander Malcolm announced instruction in "merchant's book-keeping."

In Philadelphia, 1733, Andrew Lamb advertised that he continued "to teach Merchants Accompts, after the Italian Manner by double Entry, Dr. and Cr. by the best Method." The subject was taught in Charleston, South Carolina, 1744, by Stephen

⁶ Boston News Letters, March 21-28, 1709.

Boston Gazette, August 31-September 7, 1724. Samuel Grainger: "Writing, Accompts and the Mathematicks." Also September 4-11, 11-18, 1727. Samuel Grainger: "Writing, Arithmetick, Book-keeping."

⁷Boston News Letter, February 24-March 3, 1718. Also March 5-12, 12-19, 1730. Charles Lewis: "Writing, Arithmetick, Merchants Accompts, Foreign Exchanges, either in French or in English."

^{*} New York Gazette, August 31-September 7, 1731.

New York Weekly Journal, March 24, 31, and April 7, 1740. James Foddey: "Accompts."

New York Gazette, December 30-January 7-14, and 14-21, 1734.

New York Weekly Journal, April 6, 13, 27, and later issues in 1741. John Campbell: "Merchants Accompts."

¹⁰ American Weekly Mercury, September 6-13, 13-20, December 14-21, 1733, and in many issues during 1734 and 1735 appeared the notice of Theophilus Grew: "Merchants Accompts."

Pennsylvania Gazette, August 18-25, 1737. William Robins: "Book-Keeping."

Hartley, 11 George Brownell, and John Pratt; 12 and in Chester Town, Maryland, 1745, by Charles Peale. The Italian method, or double-entry bookkeeping, appears in many schools in eighteenth-century America.14

The usual commercial course of the period included "mercantile arithmetic," bookkeeping, and penmanship. For those who were preparing to enter the employ of merchants engaged in foreign trade, the schools offered instruction in French, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and foreign exchange. 15

SHORTHAND

Professor Andrews, in a chapter on "The Intellectual Life" in the American colonies, says:

Whether shorthand was anywhere taught is doubtful and highly improbable, yet from Henry Wolcott, Jr., of Windsor and Roger Williams of Rhode Island to Jonathan Boucher of Virginia and Maryland there were those who were familiar with it, and occasional references to writings in "characters" would point in the same direction.16

Frequent references to shorthand by men like those just mentioned are evidence of its use by ministers and writers of the period. Many others learned the "art of character-writing"17 for the purpose of taking down and preserving sermons.

Another writer states that "shorthand writing was taught from about the middle of the nineteenth century; but it was taught as a science or for professional rather than commercial purposes."18

¹¹ South Carolina Gazette, June 4, 11, and 20, 1744.

¹² South Carolina Gazette, September 3, 10, and 17, 1744. George Brownell and John Pratt: "Merchants Accompts, in the true Italian Method of Double

Entry, by Debtor and Creditor."

"" Pennsylvania Gazette, March 12, 19, 26, and April 2, 1745.

"Seybolt, R. F. Source Studies in American Colonial Education. Urbana, Illinois, University of Illinois, 1925. Chap. III.

"Ibid., Chaps. I, II, III.
"Andrews, C. M. Colonial Folkways. New Haven, Yale University Press,

^{1921.} p. 142-43. Italics mine.

'Also called the 'Art of Characterie,' 'the Art of Swift Writing,'
'Brachygraphy,' 'Cryptography,' 'Palygraphy,' 'Tachygraphy,'
'Thoographia,' during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Berrick, op. cit., p. 192. 'By 1849 shorthand had become popular in

America.'' (p. 214)

It is impossible to establish the earliest date for the teaching of shorthand in this country. Records at hand indicate that it was offered in Boston as early as 1728:

Caleb Philipps Teacher of the New Method of Short Hand, is remov'd to the north door of the Town House in King-street. As this way of Joyning 3, 4, 5, &c. words in one in every Sentence by the Moods, Tenses, Persons, and Verb do's not in the least spoil the Long Hand, so it is not anything like the Marks for Sentences in the Printed Character Books being all wrote according to the Letter, and a few Plain and Easy Rules.

N. B. Any Persons in the Country desirous to Learn this Art, may by having the several Lessons sent Weekly to them, be

as perfectly instructed as those that live in Boston.¹⁰

The next announcement of Caleb Philipps' school was published by a group of prominent citizens of Boston,²⁰ who took that occasion "to recommend his Art":

Whereas Mr. Caleb Philipps arriv'd here last Fall from England, a Master of the celebrated Mr. Weston's Short-Hand; which has the fame of being the quickest, most regular, and easiest learnt of any; and having seen to our Satisfaction his Dexterity in writing it, as also something of his Aptness to teach it by the Improvement which one in particular has already made under him; and being, by what we are inform'd, of a blameless and laudable Conversation—We Judge it may be for the publick Good to recommend his Art to all that are like to Have Occasion for writing much; especially to Scholars, and those that would preserve the Sermons they hear in public for their further and lasting Use.

²⁰ Boston Gazette, April 1-8, 1728.

¹⁹ Boston Gazette, March 18-25, 1728.

Caleb Philipps' sponsors were the most prominent clergymen of Boston, in 1728.

Benjamin Colman (Harvard, 1692; A.M.; S.T.D., Glasgow, 1731; Fellow of Harvard College; died 1747) was pastor of the Brattle Street Church. In 1724, he was elected President of Harvard, but declined.

Joseph Sewall (Harvard, 1707; A.M.; S.T.D., Glasgow, 1731; Fellow of Harvard College; died 1769) was elected President of Harvard in 1724, but declined.

Thomas Prince (Harvard, 1707; A.M.; died 1758) was paster of the Old South Church.

William Cooper (Harvard, 1712; A.M.; died 1743) was elected President of Harvard in 1737, but declined "this honor and trust."

Thomas Foxcroft (Harvard, 1714; A.M.; died 1769) served on committees of the Harvard Board of Overseers.

Joshua Gee (Harvard, 1717; A.M.; Librarian of Harvard College; died 1748) succeeded Cotton Mather as pastor of the North Church.

By the Prints from London it appears that this Method has so recommended itself, that Mr. Weston has obtained His Majesty's Royal Authority for the sole printing and publishing his Books for the space of fourteen Years; and we are also credibly inform'd that many of the Nobility, Gentry, Ministry, Etc. have taken the Pains to learn it; and we are persuaded it would be of great Advantage, if it should be commonly receiv'd in this improving Country.

Boston April 2, 1728

BENJAMIN COLMAN JOSEPH SEWALL THOMAS PRINCE WILLIAM COOPER THOMAS FOXCROFT JOSHUA GEE

Philipps was quite up-to-date in his method of instruction. Weston's text, *Stenography Completed*, was published in 1727, the year in which Philipps appeared in Boston.

Stenography Completed, or the art of Shorthand brought to perfection; being the most easy, exact, lineal, speedy, and legible method extant; whereby can be joined in every sentence at least two, three, four, five, six, seven, or more words together in one, without taking off the pen, in the twinkling of an eye; and that by the signs of the English moods, tenses, persons, participles, etc., never before invented. By this new method any who can but tolerably write their name in roundhand may, with ease, (by this book alone, without any teacher) take down from the speaker's mouth any sermon, speech, trial, play, etc., word by word; though they know nothing of Latin; and may likewise read another's writing distinctly, be it ever so long after it is written. To perform this by any other shorthand extant is utterly impossible, as is evident from the books themselves. The nature, use, and excellency hereof, are more fully contained in the preface. Composed by James Weston, the only author and professor of this new method. London. Printed for the author, and sold by him at the "Hand and Pen," over against Norfolk street, in the Strand; where he continues to teach this new method expeditiously.21

At least thirty different systems of shorthand had been published in England by 1727.

²¹ Pitman, Isaac. A History of Shorthand. 3rd edition. London, Sir Isaac Pittman & Sons, 1891, 19-20.

The art was not unknown in Philadelphia in 1729. Samuel Keimer, printer and book-seller, finding himself in financial difficulties, offered to give away shorthand texts as premiums, in order to increase his sales:

The said Keimer (Samuel Keimer, printer of the Pennsylvania Gazette) has re-printed a fresh Impression of Short-Hand Books, to give to every one that shall lay out but Three Shillings in Bonds, Bills, Indentures, Primmers, Accidences, or other useful Books, he selling cheaper than ordinary in order to the more speedy enabling him to do Justice to his Creditors.2

Following the transfer of his business to David Harry, Keimer published many notices requesting his debtors to pay up.

In New York City, 1751, "a new invented Short-Hand" was taught with reading, writing, arithmetic, book-keeping, and other subjects, in a school conducted by Benjamin Leigh and Garrat Noel.²³ A "new and concise Method of Writing Short Hand" was offered, in New London, Connecticut, in 1777, by "A Young Man that can be well recommended."24

Clerks of courts and town meetings, and secretaries to certain officials, as well as "Scholars, and those that would preserve the Sermons they hear," made use of shorthand. Although it had not come into general use in the business life of the colonies. there seems to have been a demand for instruction in "swift Writing" in the larger cities of eighteenth-century America.

SCHOOL-EQUIPMENT

According to Wickersham, "slates and pencils did not come into use until after the Revolutionary War."25 This observation is repeated by Cajori.26 Clifton Johnson says: "Slates did not come into general use until about 1820, and lead pencils

²⁴ Connecticut Gazette and Universal Intelligencer, August 29, September 12, 1777.

²⁵ Wickersham, J. P. A History of Education in Pennsylvania. Lancaster,

²² Pennsylvania Gazette, Eighteenth of the Seventh Month, 1729. ²³ New York Gazette Revived in the Weekly Post Boy, January 21, 28, 1751. Also, February 25 and March 4, 1751. An unnamed master "teacheth a new-invented Short Hand."

Pennsylvania, Inquirer Publishing Company, 1886. p. 192.

²⁰ Cajori, F. The Teaching and History of Mathematics in the United States. Washington, D. C., Superintendent of Documents, 1890. (U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information, 1890, No. 3), p. 10.

not for a good many years after that."27 This may have been the source on which Cubberley relied for his statement that "slates were not introduced until about 1820, and pencils and steel pens did not come into use until much later."28

Such statements make one wonder why slates and pencils were advertised by various booksellers of the eighteenth century. Did no one purchase or use them? Joshua Blanchard, of Boston, sold "Slates," and "black lead Pencils," in 1743.29 The advertisements refer to "Pencils," "Pencils with or without Steel Cases," "Best black lead pencils with silver cases," "Middleton's very best Lead Pencils."30

One author informs us that "The colonial schools had no blackboards and no maps, but once in a while a schoolhouse in the more flourishing communities would possess a globe;"31 another, that "During the first half of the century after the War of the Revolution Charts, maps, and globes had not come into general use."32 Although blackboards are not mentioned in the sources examined, it is probable that they were in use here and there. Christopher Dock's blackboard could not have been the only one in eighteenth-century America.

The records reveal a different situation, however, with respect to the use of maps and globes. Theophilus Grew, of Phila-

²⁷ Johnson, C. Old-Time Schools and School-Books. New York, Macmillan Company, 1904, p. 38. Cyclopedia of Education, Paul Monroe, editor, New York, Macmillan Company, V, 341: "Slates were rather slowly introduced into our schools and rarely found before the close of the Revolutionary

²⁸ Cubberley, E. P. Public Education in the United States. New York,

William Cockburn sold slates. 30 New York Mercury, April 9, 1759; June 23, 1760; September 1, 1777;

September 20, 1779; October 30, 1780.

Cajori, op. cit., p. 37.

Cajori, op. cit., p. 10: "School appliances in those days were wholly wanting (excepting the ferule and birch rods)."

³² Swett, J. American Public Schools. New York, American Book Com-

pany, 1900. pp. 118-19. Cubberley. Public Education in the United States. p. 36: "There were no blackboards or maps."

delphia, 1735, taught "the Use of Globes, Maps."33 In 1745, Charles Peale, "At Kent County School, near Chester Town, Maryland," gave instruction in "the Use of the Globes, by the largest and most accurate Pair in America."34 John Nathan Hutchins, of New York City, 1763, announced that he had "a good Sett" of globes, both "Celestial and Terrestrial."35 Maps, and "tie making of Maps" are mentioned frequently in the school announcements of the period.³⁶ In the seaport cities, all the "better" schools, in which navigation and geography were offered, were equipped with globes, maps, and charts, and the students were taught to use them.

33 Pennsylvania Gazette, October 16-23, 1735. Also during November and December issues of 1743.

Charles Fortesque in Philadelphia advertises that he will teach "Use of

the Globes."

James Cosgrove of Philadelphia makes a similar announcement in the issues for September 8, December 8, 22, 1757.

³⁴ Pennsylvania Gazette, March 12, 19, 26, April 2, 1745.

Boston News Letter, March 3, 10, 1743. Nathan Prince, Boston: "The Use of the Globes."

Independent Advertiser, April 17, 24, May 1, 1749. John Leach, Boston: "The Use of the Globes and Charts."

⁸⁵ New York Mercury, April 25, May 2, 1763.

New York Gazette. Revived in the Weekly Post Boy, January 21, 28, 1751. B. Leigh and G. Noel, New York City: "the Use of the Globes."

New York Gazette or Weekly Post Boy, January 12, February 16, 1764. Wm. Cockburn.

36 Pennsylvania Gazette, September 12, 1771. Maguire and Power, Phila-

New York Gazette or Weekly Post Boy, May 12, 19, 26, 1755. Robert Leeth, New York City: "the Construction of the Plain and Mercator's Chart."

New York Mercury, May 6, 13, 20, September 30, October 7, 1765.

Thomas Carroll, New York City.

New York Gazette and Weekly Mercury, October 28, November 4, 11, 1771. James Conn, Elizabethtown, New Jersey: "the most useful and most difficult Part of Geography, viz. Drawing Maps and Charts, whether Plain, Mercator, Spherical or Conical; together with their Explanation, and the Reason why each Kind are drawn in the Manner they are."



